

Abstract

Oxalic and other small dicarboxylic acids have been reported as important water-soluble organic constituents of atmospheric aerosols from different environments. Their molecular distributions are generally characterized by the predominance of oxalic acid (C_2) followed by malonic (C_3) and/or succinic (C_4) acids. In this study, we collected marine aerosols from the Arctic Ocean during late summer in 2009 when sea ice is retreated. The marine aerosols were analyzed for the molecular distributions of dicarboxylic acids as well as ketocarboxylic acids and α -dicarbonyls to better understand the source of water-soluble organics and their photochemical processes in the high Arctic marine atmosphere. We found that diacids are more abundant than ketoacids and α -dicarbonyls, but their concentrations are generally low ($< 30 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), except for one sample (up to 70 ng m^{-3}) that was collected near the mouth of Mackenzie River during clear sky condition. Although the molecular compositions of diacids are in general characterized by the predominance of oxalic acid, a depletion of C_2 was found in two samples in which C_4 became the most abundant. Similar depletion of oxalic acid has previously been reported in the Arctic aerosols collected at Alert after polar sunrise and in the summer aerosols from the coastal Antarctica. Because the marine aerosols that showed a depletion of C_2 were observed under the overcast and/or foggy conditions, we suggest that a photochemical decomposition of oxalic acid may have occurred in aqueous phase of aerosols over the Arctic Ocean via the photo dissociation of oxalate-Fe (III) complex. We also determined stable carbon isotopic compositions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of bulk aerosol carbon and individual diacids. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of bulk aerosols showed -26.5% (range: -29.7% to -24.7%), suggesting that marine aerosol carbon is derived from both terrestrial and marine organic materials. In contrast, oxalic acid showed much larger $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (average: -20.9% , range: -24.7% to -17.0%) than those of bulk aerosol carbon. Interestingly, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of oxalic acid were higher than C_3 (av. -26.6%) and C_4 (-25.8%) diacids, suggesting that oxalic acid is enriched with ^{13}C due to its photochemical processing (aging) in the marine atmosphere.

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1 Introduction

Low molecular weight dicarboxylic acids are one of the most abundant organic compound classes in atmospheric aerosols. They were reported in the urban (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993; Sempéré and Kawamura, 1994), mountainous (Legrand et al., 2007), marine (Kawamura and Sakaguchi, 1999; Mochida et al., 2003a, b), and Arctic and Antarctic atmospheres (Kawamura et al., 1996a, b, 2005; Narukawa et al., 2002, 2003). Due to their water-soluble properties, diacids as well as ketoacids and α -dicarbonyls can act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and hence influence on the Earth radiative forcing and climate (Kawamura and Usukura, 1993; Saxena et al., 1995; Saxena and Hildemann, 1996). These compounds can be directly emitted by fossil fuel combustion (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987) and biomass burning (Legrand and DeAngelis, 1996; Narukawa et al., 1999; Kundu et al., 2010b). However, a major portion of diacids is photochemical produced in the atmosphere (Kawamura et al., 1996a; Warneck, 2003; Ervens et al., 2004; Kawamura and Yasui, 2005; Carlton et al., 2007).

The studies of arctic aerosols demonstrated that the atmospheric pollutants such as sulfate are long-range transported from mid-latitudes to the Arctic maximizing in winter to spring seasons (Barrie, 1986, 1997). In the High Arctic Alert (82.5° N, 62.3° W), concentrations of dicarboxylic acids have been reported to increase from winter to spring with maxima at polar sunrise in spring due to photochemical production and then decrease toward the summer (Kawamura et al., 1996a, 2005). The analyses of stable carbon isotopic compositions of aerosol carbon and ionic composition of the high Arctic aerosols showed that winter aerosols are mainly derived from the primary pollutants emitted in the midlatitudes whereas sea-to-air emissions of marine organic carbon are enhanced in the late spring to early summer following a melting of sea ice in the Arctic Ocean (Narukawa et al., 2008). However, there is no reported observation of dicarboxylic acids and related compounds in the marine aerosols from the Arctic Ocean. Recent studies predicted significant changes in the arctic zone for coming decades

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(McGuire et al., 2009). These changes should result in a river flow increase coupled with a permafrost thaws, a highest coastal erosion and change in precipitation patterns modifying the organic and inorganic terrestrial inputs both by riverine and atmospheric processes. These changes will affect the primary productivity that will modify the aerosol dynamics and thus probably the radiative budget in the Arctic.

In this study, we collected marine aerosol samples from the western Arctic Ocean. We analyzed the samples for the measurements of homologues series of low molecular weight dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and α -dicarbonyls (glyoxal and methylglyoxal) in the marine aerosols as well as their stable carbon isotopic composition at molecular level. We also determined total carbon and nitrogen contents and their bulk isotopic compositions in the aerosol samples. Here we report for the first time the molecular compositions of dicarboxylic acids and related compounds and their stable isotopic compositions in the Arctic Ocean aerosols and discuss their sources and formation processes in the High Arctic marine atmosphere.

2 Samples and methods

Marine aerosol samples were collected in the Beaufort Sea of the western Arctic Ocean using a high volume air sampler (Kimoto AS-810B) and quartz fiber filters (20 × 25 cm, Pallflex 2500QAT-UP) during the MALINA cruise of R/V *CCGS Amundsen*, 3–25 August 2009. Ten aerosol samples (#1 to #10) were collected without any size cut during the cruise. Figure 1 shows the cruise tracks for the ten aerosol samples. The quartz filter was pre-combusted at 450 °C for 6 h to remove organic contaminants and stored in a clean glass bottle with a Teflon-lined screw cap before the sampling. The air sampler was placed on the ship deck at ca. 20 m above the sea level. Aerosol sampling was conducted on a basis of 2–3 days sampling periods. The pump of the air sampler was switched on/off using a wind speed ($> 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) and wind sector ($\pm 60^\circ$) controller system to avoid a potential contamination from the ship exhaust. Flow rate of the air was 1.0 or 1.2 m³ per minute. Total air sample volume measured by a mass flow controller ranged

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from 105 m³ to 1909 m³ for each sample with effective pumping time of 12 % to 50 % of the sampling period, except for one sample (3 %, #5 sample). Field blank was taken after the filter was placed in the air sampler without sucking air and stored in the clean glass bottle.

During sample collection, the ambient temperatures ranged from -1.5 °C to 9.2 °C with an average of 3.0 °C. The presence of sea ice in the ocean has frequently forced us to change the cruise tracks of the ship. The weather conditions during the cruise were frequently overcast and occasionally foggy with rare sunny conditions, however, there were no events of rain or snow during the sampling period. The atmospheric irradiance was recorded on the upper deck of the ship at 8 wavelength in 4 UV and 4 visible wavelengths using OCR-504 downward irradiance sensors (Satlantic narrow band radiometers). Figure 2 shows the variations of solar radiation at 412 nm together with the information of sampling period for each aerosol samples and fog events. After the sample collection, each filter sample was returned in a clean glass bottle and the Teflon-lined screw cap was tightened to avoid the exchange of the air during storage. The samples were stored in the refrigerator in the ship during the cruise and then transported to the laboratory in Sapporo, Japan, where the samples were stored in dark freezer room at -20 °C prior to analysis.

Aliquots of filter samples were extracted with pure water to separate diacids and related water-soluble organic compounds. The water extracts were adjusted to pH = 8.5 using a 0.1 M KOH solution. The extracts were concentrated using a rotary evaporator under vacuum and derivatized to dibutyl esters and acetals with 14 % BF₃ in n-butanol (Supelco). The derivatives were dissolved in n-hexane and injected to a gas chromatography (GC) and GC/mass spectrometry to determine dicarboxylic acids (C₂-C₁₀), ketocarboxylic acids (C₂-C₉) and α -dicarbonyls (glyoxal and methylglyoxal) (Kawamura, 1993; Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993). GC (Agilent 6980) was installed with a split/splitless injector and HP-5 column (0.2 mm \times 25 m, film thickness 0.5 μ m). Recoveries of oxalic, malonic, and succinic acids were better than 84 %. The recoveries were improved employing the pH adjustment of the water extracts compared to those

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without the pH adjustment (e.g. 70 % for oxalic acid) (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993). Field blank was analyzed like the actual samples. Although we found small peaks of oxalic acid and phthalic acid on the GC chromatogram, their amounts were less than 5 % of the actual samples. The concentrations of the compounds reported here are all corrected for the field blank. Duplicate analyses of the sample showed that the analytical errors in the procedures were within 10 % for major components.

Stable carbon isotopic composition of dicarboxylic and ketocarboxylic acids were determined using a GC/combustion/isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Finnigan MAT Delta plus). Details of the analytical methodology are described elsewhere (Kawamura and Watanabe, 2004). Because of the small peaks, the isotopic compositions of glyoxal and methylglyoxal could not be measured in this study.

Total carbon and nitrogen contents were also determined for the marine aerosol samples. An aliquot of filter sample was placed in a tin cup and caked in a small ball. The caked samples (filter sample plus tin cup) were then analyzed for TC and TN contents and their isotopic compositions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) using elemental analyzer (EA; model Carlo Erba NA 1500) and EA/isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) (Finnigan MAT Delta Plus), respectively (Kawamura et al., 2004; Narukawa et al., 2008). Acetanilide was used as an external standard to determine TC, TN, and their isotopic compositions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$). The reproducibility of TC and TN analysis of the atmospheric aerosol samples using the same laboratory methodology is within 2 % whereas the analytical errors for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are within 0.2‰ and those for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ are 0.3‰ (Kawamura et al., 2004). TC and TN contents reported here were corrected for the field blank. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values were also corrected to field blanks using isotopic mass balance equation.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 TC and TN and their isotopic composition

Total carbon (TC) in the aerosols ranged from 0.24 to 5.88 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ with an average of 1.06 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ whereas total nitrogen (TN) ranged from 0.06 to 1.43 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (av. 0.34 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Except for #5 sample, whose total sampling collection time is very short (ca. 1.3 h), the average concentrations of TC and TN were 0.52 and 0.22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The TC concentrations in the marine aerosols are similar to the level (TC: 0.41–0.69 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, av. 0.58 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) reported for the winter aerosols, but higher than that (0.24–0.43 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, av. 0.32 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for spring aerosols collected at Alert (Narukawa et al., 2008). The TC values in the arctic aerosols from Alert were reported to decline from winter (ca. 0.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) to early summer (ca. 0.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (Kawamura et al., 2010). Thus, the higher TC concentrations in the marine aerosols from the Arctic Ocean suggest that the marine aerosols are influenced by the sea-to-air emissions of marine organic matter. TN concentrations (average of 0.22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ excluding #5 sample) in the marine aerosol samples are also higher than those (av. 0.08, range: 0.01–0.16 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) reported in the continental Arctic aerosols from Alert (Kawamura et al., 2010). This again suggests that there is a contribution to aerosol TN from the ocean surface. Significant emissions of organic nitrogen from ocean surface were reported in the marine aerosols from the northern North Pacific (Miyazaki et al., 2011).

Stable carbon isotopic compositions of aerosol carbon in the marine aerosols are given in Fig. 3. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are relatively small ranging from -24.7‰ to -29.7‰ with an average of -26.5‰ . These small values suggest that the aerosol carbon may be derived from organic matter of terrestrial plant origin (Chesselet et al., 1981; Cachier et al., 1986; Kawamura et al., 2004; Narukawa et al., 2008). Because the surface waters in the Canadian Shelf of the Beaufort Sea are significantly influenced by the freshwater inflow from the Mackenzie River (Carmack et al., 2004), terrestrial organic materials are supplied to the surface ocean and then emitted to the air by bubble bursting processes associated with wind action. In contrast, the Beaufort Sea is characterized

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as oligotrophic in the summertime although primary productivity is increased during spring bloom season when sea ice melts (Carmack et al., 2004; Lavoie et al., 2009). In fact, very low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value around -28‰ was reported for the suspended organic matter (POC) in the surface water of the Canadian Basin (north of the Beaufort Sea) in the Arctic due to the inflow of terrestrial organic carbon from the Mackenzie River, although the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) showed marine signature at -22‰ (Griffith et al., 2012). However, organic materials derived from marine biological activity should also be emitted to the air, contributing to some extent to the organic aerosols. Alternatively, atmospheric transport of terrestrial organic carbon may be significant in the marine aerosols collected over the Arctic Ocean because the sampling areas are close to North America. Nitrogen isotopic composition ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) of total aerosol nitrogen (TN) ranged from 6.6‰ to 22.9‰ with an average of 10.9‰ (Fig. 3). These values are higher than those ($5.1 \pm 1.6\text{‰}$) reported from the northern North Pacific ($40\text{--}44^\circ\text{N}$) in which contribution from marine biological activity is suggested for the aerosol organic nitrogen (Miyazaki et al., 2011). However, our values are much lower than those ($15.7\text{--}31.2\text{‰}$) reported for the continental aerosols from India (Pavuluri et al., 2010) and those ($16.9 \pm 4.5\text{‰}$) from marine aerosols collected at Gosan site, Jeju Island in the East China Sea (Kundu et al., 2010d). In the Asian aerosols, ammonium is the major form of aerosol nitrogen followed by nitrate whereas organic nitrogen is a minor fraction of TN (Kundu et al., 2010d). The significant isotopic enrichment of ^{15}N in the Asian aerosols has been interpreted to occur during the gas-to-particle conversion ($\text{NH}_3 \rightarrow \text{NH}_4^+$, $\text{HNO}_3 \rightarrow \text{NO}_3^-$) and subsequent gas/aerosol partitioning of nitrogenous species (NH_3 , NH_4^+ , HNO_3 , NO_3^-) (Kundu et al., 2010d; Pavuluri et al., 2010). However, the less enrichment of ^{15}N in the Arctic marine aerosols suggests that contribution of inorganic nitrogen is less important than polluted Asian aerosols and aerosol nitrogen is more contributed from organic nitrogen that may be emitted from ocean surfaces by bubble bursting processes in the remote ocean (Leck and Bigg, 1999; Facchini et al., 2008; Russell et al., 2010; Miyazaki et al., 2011).

3.2 Distributions of dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and α -dicarbonyls

In the Arctic Ocean aerosols, we detected homologous series of α, ω -dicarboxylic acids (C_2 - C_{12}), branched chain diacids (iC_4 - iC_6), unsaturated diacids (maleic, fumaric and methylmaleic), aromatic diacids (phthalic, isophthalic and terephthalic) and hydroxy diacid (malic) as well as diacids with keto-group (ketomalonic and 4-ketopimelic). Their concentration ranges are presented in Table 1 with abbreviation for the organic species. Generally, oxalic acid (C_2) is the most abundant diacid species followed by malonic (C_3) or succinic (C_4) acid in the marine aerosols (Fig. 4), being consistent with previous studies of continental aerosols (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993; Kundu et al., 2010c). However, we found the depletion of oxalic acid in two samples (Fig. 4), a point to be discussed later. We also detected ketocarboxylic acids including series of ω -oxocarboxylic acids (C_2 - C_9) and pyruvic acid. Although ωC_6 was detected in the aerosols, its concentrations are not reported here because of the overlapping peak on the GC chromatogram. Among the ketoacids, 4-oxobutanoic acid (ωC_4) was frequently found as the most abundant ketoacid (Fig. 4). This is in contrast to the previously studied aerosol samples from the low and mid latitudes in which glyoxylic acid (ωC_2) is the most abundant ketoacid (Kawamura et al., 1996a; Kawamura and Yasui, 2005; Kundu et al., 2010a, c). Two α -dicarbonyls (glyoxal and methylglyoxal) were detected in the samples. Concentrations of ketoacids and α -dicarbonyls are roughly one and two orders magnitudes lower than those of diacids, respectively (Table 1).

The average concentrations of diacids (19 ng m^{-3}), ketoacids (2.2 ng m^{-3}) and α -dicarbonyls (0.4 ng m^{-3}) in the summer marine aerosols (Table 1) are much lower than those reported for spring aerosols from the High Arctic Alert, but are in general equivalent to those of the summer aerosols from Alert (Kawamura et al., 1996a). However, concentrations of diacids and related compounds in the summer marine aerosols from the Arctic Ocean are one or two orders magnitudes lower than those reported in summer aerosols from Gosan site in Jeju Island, the East China Sea (Kawamura et al.,

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2004; Kundu et al., 2010c), and are several times lower than those reported in the summer marine aerosols from the northern North Pacific (Miyazaki et al., 2011). These comparisons indicate that the Arctic Ocean aerosols collected in the Beaufort Sea are not enriched with diacids and related compounds in the summer season even when sea ice is retreated.

To better understand the source regions of marine aerosols, backward air mass trajectories were calculated for each sampling periods (Fig. 5). It is of interest to note that, although concentrations of water-soluble organic species are low when air masses are delivered from the Arctic Ocean, we found relatively high abundances of diacids and related compounds in the marine aerosols when air masses arrived from the continents including North America (for example, #3, #4 and #10 samples, see Figs. 4 and 5). These results suggest that the significant portion of diacids and related compounds are originated from continental sources: potential sources include polluted urban aerosols (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993) and photochemical production from various organic precursors such as isoprene and other biogenic VOCs during long-range atmospheric transport (Myriokefalitakis et al., 2011). One aerosol sample (#5) showed relatively high concentrations of diacids (Fig. 5). Although the sampling period of the sample is very short (only 1.3 h), the weather condition was clear. Thus, photochemically produced organic acids may have been accumulated in the marine atmosphere before and during the sampling. Alternatively, the sampling location was very close to the coast (Fig. 1) and thus #5 sample may have more influence from continental aerosols.

3.3 Contributions of dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and α -dicarbonyls to TC

Figure 6 present contributions (%) of total diacids, ketoacids and α -dicarbonyls to aerosol total carbon (TC). Total diacid-C/TC ratios range from 0.28 to 2.1% with an average of 0.87%. These ratios are lower than those (range: 1.5–7.0%, av. 4.0%) reported in the Arctic aerosols from Alert during winter (February) to early summer (June) (Kawamura et al., 2010) and much lower than those (1.1–15.8%, av. 8.8%) reported

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depletion of oxalic acid in the marine aerosols was detected when the samples were collected under overcast conditions with fog or brume event (Fig. 2). These meteorological conditions suggest that degradation of oxalic acid may be overwhelmed by its production in aqueous phase of aerosols possibly in the presence of Fe (Kawamura et al., 2010). It was found that oxalic acid decomposes in the presence of Fe under the UV radiation in the laboratory experiment (Pavuluri and Kawamura, 2012). Bifunctional oxalic acid can form a complex with Fe (III) (iron (III)-oxalato complex) under aqueous conditions, which can photolyze under an irradiation of UV-A to visible region to result in CO₂ and Fe (II) (Zuo and Hoigne, 1992; Deguillaume et al., 2005). Foggy conditions together with solar irradiation probably accelerate the decomposition of oxalic acid in aqueous phase of aerosols.

3.5 Stable carbon isotopic composition of individual diacids and ketoacids

Table 2 presents isotopic compositions of diacids and ketoacids in the marine aerosols from the Arctic Ocean. Oxalic acid showed the largest value (av. -21.0‰). This average value is ca. 5–6‰ higher than those of other diacids except for C9, whose isotopic ratio is -21.9‰ although there is only one measurement. The larger $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of oxalic acid than malonic and succinic acids have been reported for the remote marine aerosols from the Pacific Ocean (Wang and Kawamura, 2006), the suburban aerosols from Sapporo, Japan (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2008) and urban aerosols from India (Pavuluri et al., 2011). The present results of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of oxalic acid are consistent with those of aged organic aerosols. Thus, it is likely that oxalic acid in the marine aerosols is photochemically aged and its isotope ratios are increased by isotopic fractionation during the selective breakdown of ¹²C-¹²C bond of oxalic acid over the ¹³C-¹²C bond, resulting in larger $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value for remaining oxalic acid. This kind of isotopic enrichment of ¹³C in oxalic acid has been demonstrated in the laboratory experiment of iron catalyzed photolysis of oxalate-Fe complex in aqueous phase (Pavuluri and Kawamura, 2012).

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was found in the marine aerosols under foggy and cloudy conditions, which is possibly interpreted by selective degradation of oxalate-Fe complex in aqueous phase.

Stable carbon and nitrogen isotopic composition of the Arctic marine aerosols suggested that the sea-to-air emissions of particulate organic materials in the surface water are important source of the marine aerosols in the west Arctic Ocean where terrestrial organic matter is significantly supplied to the surface ocean by the Mackenzie River. Molecular distributions of diacids and related compounds also suggested the sea-to-air emissions of plankton-derived unsaturated fatty acids followed by atmospheric oxidation. However, isotopic compositions of oxalic acid suggested that photochemical aging is not so serious as the marine aerosols in the lower latitudes.

Further studies are needed to better understand the source and formation/destruction pathways of dicarboxylic acids and related organic species in the Arctic marine aerosols. Global warming and the environmental changes in the Arctic may modify the arctic aerosol concentrations and compositions, altering the radiative budget in the Arctic.

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Table 1. Concentrations of dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and α -dicarbonyls in the marine aerosols collected over the western Arctic Ocean during MALINA cruise in August 2009.

Components, abbreviation	Concentrations (ng m ⁻³)			
	minimum	maximum	average	median
Dicarboxylic acids				
Oxalic, C ₂	1.28	42.99	8.48	3.87
Malonic, C ₃	0.13	8.88	1.91	1.17
Succinic, C ₄	0.18	18.18	4.59	1.44
Glutaric, C ₅	0.05	1.29	0.59	0.58
Adipic, C ₆	0.03	0.36	0.17	0.14
Pimelic, C ₇	BDL	0.18	0.09	0.09
Sebacic, C ₈	BDL	0.11	0.02	0.00
Azelaic, C ₉	0.05	0.70	0.20	0.12
Decanedioic, C ₁₀	BDL	0.20	0.03	0.01
Undecanedioic, C ₁₁	BDL	0.40	0.07	0.04
Dodecanedioic, C ₁₂	BDL	0.14	0.02	0.00
Methylmalonic, iC ₄	0.04	0.98	0.35	0.33
Methylsuccinic, iC ₅	0.23	2.66	0.66	0.40
2-Methylglutaric, iC ₆	0.02	0.46	0.10	0.04
Maleic, M	0.02	0.65	0.21	0.17
Fumaric, F	0.01	0.70	0.15	0.08
Methylmaleic, mM	0.02	0.29	0.09	0.05
Phthalic, Ph	0.12	2.80	0.55	0.27
Isophthalic, iPh	BDL	0.22	0.04	0.02
Terephthalic, tPh	0.04	1.72	0.35	0.08
Malic, hC ₄	0.02	1.05	0.25	0.19
Ketomalonic, kC ₃	0.02	0.95	0.17	0.04
4-Ketopimelic, kC ₇	0.01	0.58	0.18	0.14
Sub total	3.57	69.21	19.28	9.36
Ketocarboxylic acids				
Pyruvic, Pyr	0.08	1.41	0.31	0.14
Glyoxylic (2-oxoethanoic), ω C ₂	0.12	2.46	0.50	0.20
3-Oxopropanoic, ω C ₃	0.02	0.80	0.16	0.05
4-Oxobutanoic, ω C ₄	0.06	3.19	0.63	0.24
5-Oxopentanoic, ω C ₅	0.02	0.57	0.14	0.06
7-Oxoheptanoic, ω C ₇	0.02	0.98	0.19	0.06
8-Oxooctanoic, ω C ₈	0.01	0.66	0.14	0.03
9-Oxononanoic, ω C ₉	BDL	1.01	0.21	0.02
Sub total	0.45	10.82	2.27	0.76
α-Dicarbonyls				
Glyoxal, Gly	0.03	1.08	0.22	0.09
Methylglyoxal, mGly	0.04	0.83	0.18	0.07
Sub total	0.07	1.91	0.40	0.15

BDL: Below detection limit. BDL is ca. 0.005 ng m⁻³.

BGD

9, 10121–10148, 2012

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Table 2. Stable carbon isotopic composition (‰) of dicarboxylic acids and ketocarboxylic acids in the marine aerosols from the Arctic Ocean in 2009.

Sample ID Sampling periods	Dicarboxylic acids, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)										ave.
	#1 3–5 Aug	#2 5–8 Aug	#3 8–11 Aug	#4 11–13 Aug	#5 13–15 Aug	#6 15–17 Aug	#7 17–19 Aug	#8 19–21 Aug	#9 21–23 Aug	#10 23–25 Aug	
Oxalic, C2	–17.0	–22.2	–20.4	–20.3	–21.7	–19.5	–19.7	–24.8	–19.4	–24.6	–21.0
Malonic, C3		–24.6	–25.1	–26.6		–26.2				–30.5	–26.6
Succinic, C4		–26.7	–24.0	–24.0		–25.7				–28.7	–25.8
Glutaric, C5		–26.8	–25.3	–30.1		–26.7				–29.8	–27.7
Adipic, C6										–26.4	–26.4
Azelaic, C9										–21.9	–21.9
Glycolic, ω C2			–13.5	–32.4							–22.9
4-Oxobutanoic, ω C4	–21.3	–19.7	–21.3								–20.7
Maleic, M				–32.9						–28.2	–30.6

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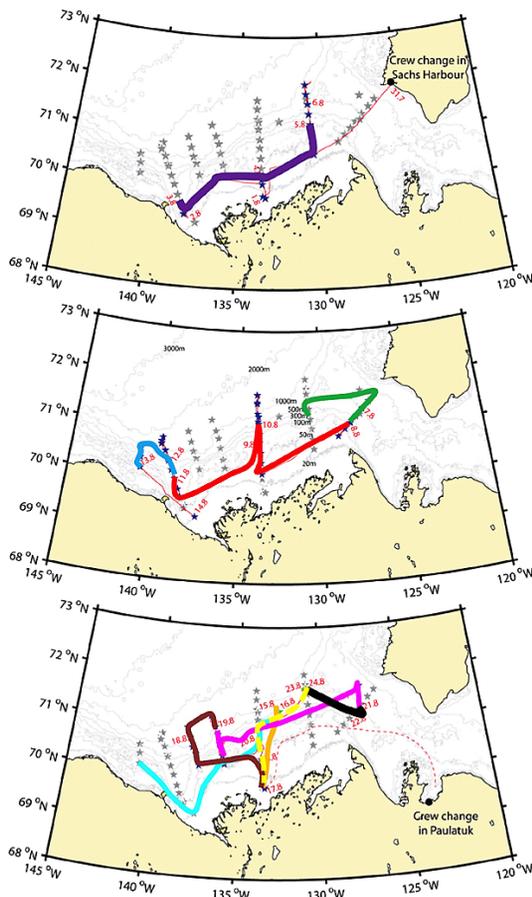
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Sample ID and dates

- #1 August 3-5
- #2 August 5-8
- #3 August 8-11
- #4 August 11-13
- #5 August 13-15
- #6 August 15-17
- #7 August 17-19
- #8 August 19-21
- #9 August 21-23
- #10 August 23-25

Fig. 1. Map of the western Arctic Ocean and the MANILA cruise tracks for aerosol sampling.

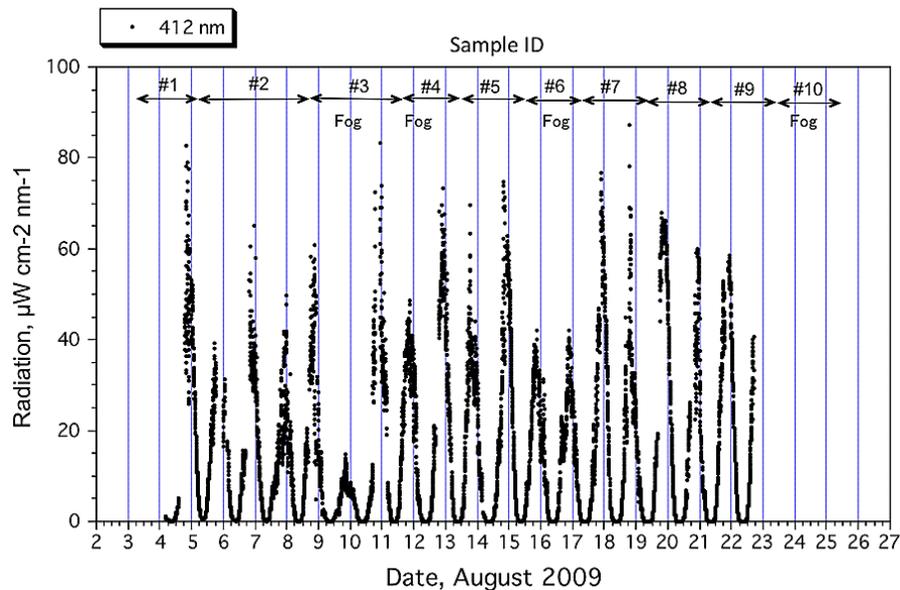


Fig. 2. Solar irradiance at UV 412 nm and aerosol filter ID with information of fog event.

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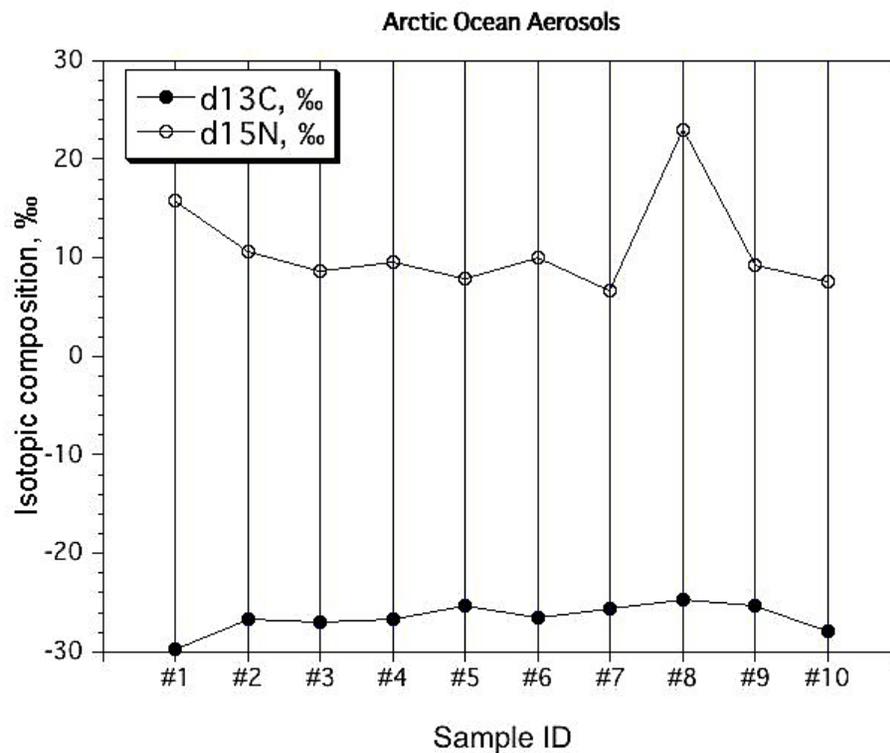


Fig. 3. Stable carbon isotopic compositions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of total carbon and nitrogen isotopic compositions ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) of total nitrogen (TN) in the marine aerosols from the western Arctic Ocean.

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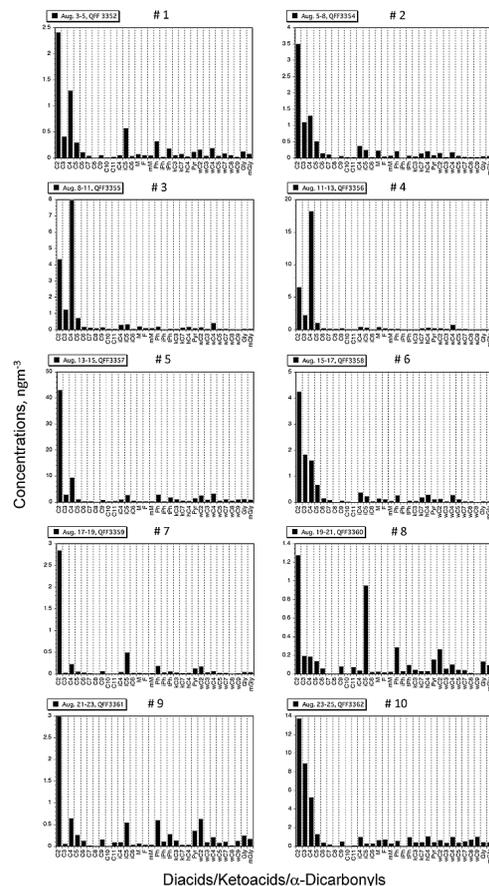


Fig. 4. Molecular compositions of low molecular weight dicarboxylic acids (C_2 – C_{10}), keto-carboxylic acids (C_2 – C_9) and α -dicarbonyls (glyoxal and methylglyoxal) in the Arctic marine aerosols.

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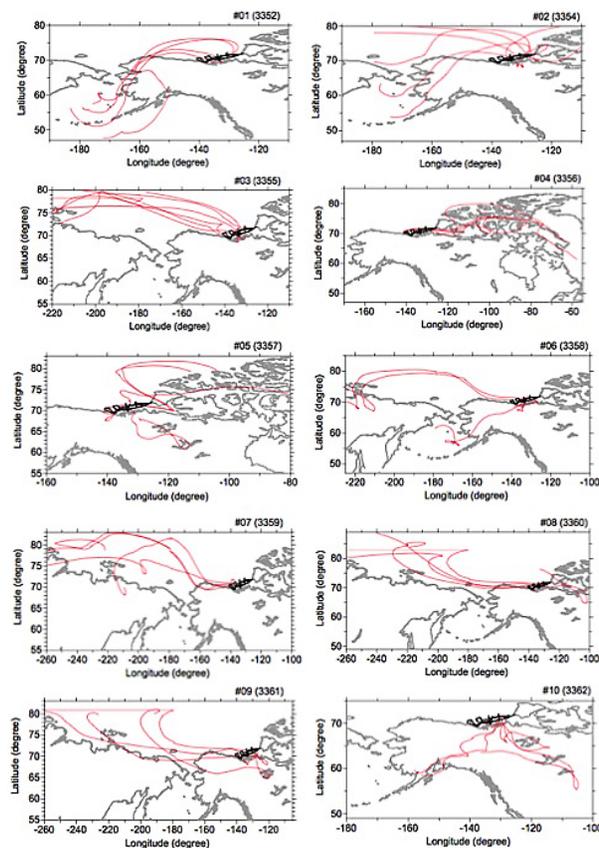


Fig. 5. Backward air mass trajectory analyses corresponding to the aerosol sample #1 to #10. The trajectories were calculated for seven days using the NOAA Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (Draxler and Rolph, 2003; Rolph, 2003).

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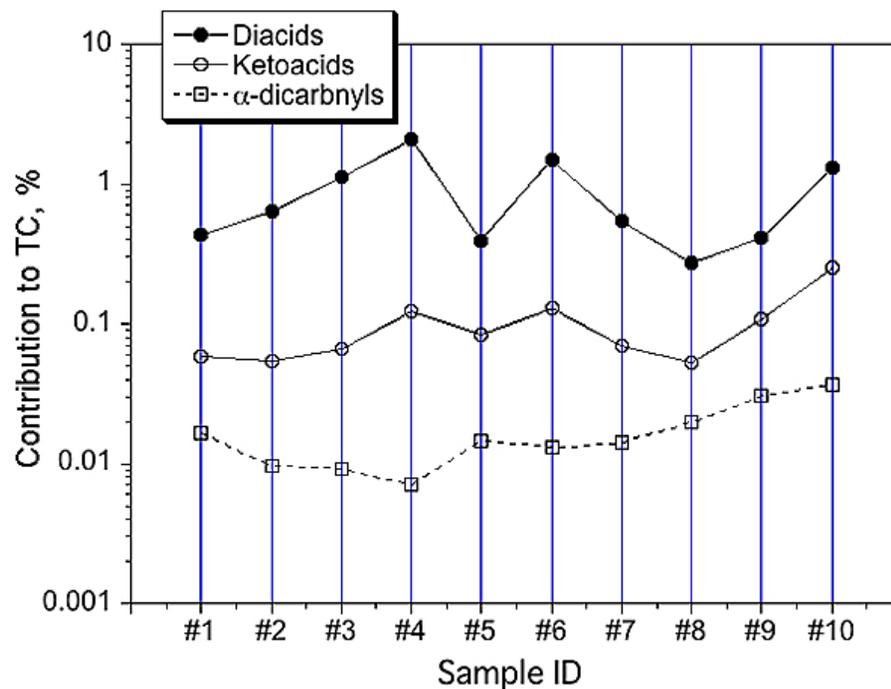
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**Fig. 6.** Contributions of diacids, ketoacids and α -dicarbonyls to total carbon (TC).[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)